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ABSTRACT

This literature review examines financial, administrative, and attitudinal problems that impede the expansion of sex equity opportunities in post-secondary vocational programs. After discussing the decreased willingness of the government to fund sex equity programs, the paper notes the forces that have increased the participation of women in post-secondary education and the workforce and argues that women's vocational education programs merit continued funding as significant generators of campus revenue. Institutional barriers to sex equity are then discussed, including: the difficulties women experience in obtaining financial aid; sexist verbiage in college publications; proportionately small numbers of women on advisory committees; admissions requirements that are difficult for adults to fulfill; the inadequacy of testing instruments to assess the academic ability of adults; and the lack of counseling and support services to meet the special needs of re-entry women. The characteristics of women students as well as their special needs are identified. Next, the paper looks at important concerns for counselors and areas contributing to sex discrimination in career counseling. Several factors that prevent women from training in non-traditional fields are identified, including sexual harrassment, family conflicts, job competition, and parental attitudes. The paper concludes with ten suggestions for an institutional program to deal with barriers to sex equity and a 161-item bibliography. (JF)

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SEX EQUITY IN THE EIGHTIES

A Study of Post-Secondary Vocational Institutional Priorities

by

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Local post-secondary vocational institution planners have been confronted for some time with an increasingly agonizing dilemma. As they try to expand federally legislated sex equity opportunities along with a myriad of other federal, state and local social priorities, they are faced with a constantly declining willingness and ability of these sponsors to provide the funding necessary to develop these programs. The current period of double-digit inflation complicated by sharply

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reduced state and local funding support for vocational research and development activities is providing fewer and fewer funds and the outlook is even more grim..

The elections of 1980 have greatly exacerbated their concerns. Not only does the incoming administration sense a mandate to reduce unproductive "welfare" spending, but they are also pledged to wield the knife of the budget-cutters on many other post-secondary educational programs that have enjoyed federal largesse in the past. All too many post-secondary vocational programs have been considered campus net loss situations which could not support themselves. Hence, planners, administrators and funders all see such programs as social rather than economic.

Unfortunately, vocational sex-equity programs directed at improving the financial lot of targeted populations such as displaced homemakers, single parents, working mothers and older women, have been unfairly and erroneously tarred with this same brush. Paradoxically, the opposite is true. Many, if not all of these programs aimed at improving the lot of the working female, have proved to be significant generators of campus income. (Kane, 1981)

Rather than turn their backs upon such programs or throw up their hands at the lack of public funding for them, post-secondary planners and administrators would do well to examine the "quiet revolution" in female enrollments that has been building over the past decade. By the fall of 1980, females represented 52% of post secondary vocational students. The presence of these more than two million women students

are part of a growing phenomenon - the necessity for the majority of adult females to earn a living outside of the home.

The surge of 42 million women into the work force will continue to have a dynamic impact on postsecondary vocational education throughout the 1980's. Over half of all women between the ages of 18 and 64 are currently employed and 9 out of 10 will work outside the home sometime during their lives. During 1977 and 1978 alone, 1.9 million new women joined the labor force. The August, 1979, Department of Labor statistics reveal the highest female job participation in history. (DOL, 20 Facts on Women Workers, 1979).

Preliminary projections for the decade ahead indicate a continued upswing in female participation directly tied to the national economic picture (Stechert, 1980). Factors contributing to increases in female participation will include: technological changes, economic imperatives, smaller families, less time-consuming domestic work and a longer life span for women (Harkness and Stromberg, 1978). Most married women now live one-third of their lives after the youngest child reaches adulthood. Concurrently, housework is less demanding and women often feel the need to put their creative energies into paid work. To resolve these needs, increasingly greater numbers of women seek paid employment (Kellman and Staley, 1974).

In the last decade, a new face has appeared in the job market, the 25-34 year old woman. Large numbers of these females who were formerly full-time homemakers primarily involved in childbearing and childrearing now find it financially necessary to work outside the home

(Manis and Machizoki, 1972). To their detriment, a disproportionately high percentage of the 42 million women workers have accepted employment in dead-end, low skill, low pay, female intensive fields. To date, over 98% of all persons working for pay in private households and over 80% of those in clerical and secretarial fields are women. Conversely, women represent only 6% of all craft workers and only 25% of all managers. Nearly 70% of employed females are clustered in low-paying service, clerical or factory work. Economic researcher Ralph Smith of the National Commission for Employment Policy argues that, "The large scale wage gap (women's salaries average only 59% that of men) won't close until significant integration of jobs occurs." The goal of equal employment opportunity thus awaits larger numbers of females moving into male intensive fields. The solutions to problems of female job segregation are both complex and deep-rooted. Though the federal government has made major gains through implementation of civil rights legislation in the 1970's, much is still left to be done to increase the equity options for all workers (Fitzgerald, 1978; Galassi and Lemon, 1978; Foxley, 1979).

Although women enter the job market for a variety of reasons, the most compelling is economic need. Nearly two-thirds of the women in the labor force in 1978 were single, widowed, divorced, separated or had husbands whose annual earnings were less than \$10,000 (DOL). Large numbers of females will find it necessary to pursue further vocational education or on-the-job training to acquire and develop skills that can be rapidly translated into higher pay. The largest gains are projected to be in high technology fields. (DOL, 20 Facts on Women Workers, 1979)

Jobs that are traditionally male-dominated requiring technical craft-oriented or management skills, hold the best prospects for females in the next decade. Among the high demand fields offering career growth potential are machine tool and die design, drafting, accounting, computer and environmental sciences. Such fields offer higher pay, greater opportunity, and a greater chance for self-fulfillment through career ladder advancement. Females of all ages need increased access to accurate information regarding occupations that are expected to grow and that offer good opportunities from pay and advancement. Although only 16% of employed women are now classified as professional/technical, it is anticipated that there will continue to be a high demand in the next decade for females in the following professions: engineering, law, medicine and architecture. There will be a declining demand for teachers and librarians. Students entering academe in the 1980's will need to know all of their career options to assure them economic as well as academic equity.

The rapid growth of female participation in post-secondary vocational education has paralleled increased funding under the vocational amendments of 1976 for sex equity related research and demonstration activities. However, institutions declare that available sex equity funding has not kept pace with the needs of institutions struggling to assure equal access to all students, particularly in the face of the multitudes of returning adult females. This absence of adequate funding is not challenged; what is challenged is that women's vocational education programs cannot go forward without such funding. Administrators must carefully assess the financial success of their sex equity programs, including the female vocational courses, to assure

that they are receiving the economic support from institutional funds that they have earned.

Brandstrom (1979) urges institutional policy developers to reassess policies as well as practices to assure access to equity in vocational education for both males and females.

Sensitive areas requiring continuing review include:

1. A philosophy that is in compliance with recent federal legislation, federal and state court decisions, federal ED/OCR regulations. Institutional goals are reviewed annually and updated to actively reflect the changing legal commitment of post-secondary vocational education to equal access for all students.

Forward-looking institutions include annual reviews in their strategic planning agendas so that funding and accreditation are not in jeopardy.

2. Institutional commitment includes adequate funding, staffing, time and space. In The Guidance Needs of Women, Harmon (1979) urges administrators to facilitate improved support services by making a personal commitment to equal opportunity for women in education and the work force while providing formal programs for in-service development of staff.

Hidden barriers abound for adult women in institutional admission practices. Although federal guidelines allow an institution to offer federal grants and/or loans to part-time students who enroll in at least six credit hours, many institutions do not make it available.

Additionally, many women are blocked from financial assistance because they must list as "assets" their spouses' income from the previous year even though that income, through divorce, separation, death or incapacitation, may not now be available to them. Loan options are often not realistic for females who are heads of households because of unrealistic repayment requirements. The beginning adult part-time learner who needs aid for a single course finds little or no availability. Part-timers will continue to need tuition aid options that are devoid of penalties.

There is need to update the comparative study of men and women receiving post-secondary financial aid that was done in 1969-70 by Cross (in Furniss, 1972). This study pointed out that women receive smaller grants and scholarships than men. They also take out larger loans and, if they are fortunate enough to find jobs, work for lower wages. The study further indicated that "institutional grants... averaged \$671 for men and \$515 for women even though there was no significant difference in the socio-economic status of women and men who participated in the study."

Various studies of adult workers indicate that if the current level of occupational equity is to be sustained and expanded, several practical approaches must be instituted. These include:

1. Development of more positive family and school reinforcement of self-worth and risk-taking. (Midgeley and Agrams, 1974; Donahue, 1976; Tyrell, 1976)

2. Greater emphasis in home and school on the importance of decision-making and computational skills as well as those that develop manual dexterity. (Fenneman, 1974; Farmer, 1978)
3. Increased emphasis upon physical fitness and competitive sports activities at an early age. (Jongeward, 1976)
4. Wider use of mass media to broaden public awareness of the skill pathways leading to better paid employment options. (Ruby, 1976)
5. Community-wide campaigns to inform families regarding the socio-economic facts that will confront females in the labor market in the 1980's and 1990's. (Kane, 1981)

A starting point for the development of open access to post-secondary vocational training should be a review of college catalogs and admissions requirements (Eliazon, 1977 & 1979). All too frequently catalogs utilize formats, photographs and verbage that perpetuate sex stereotyping.

Allen et al (1976) offers the following suggestions for reducing sexist practices:

1. Change course titles such as "autobody repairman" to "autobody mechanic".
2. Distribute catalogs and brochures describing occupational programs without emphasis on sexual stereotyping. For instance, avoid the exclusive use

of "he" when referring to most traditionally male programs and "she" when referring to the secretarial and nursing courses.

3. Rearrange physical facilities of the classes traditionally attracting male or female students so that they are situated near each other.
4. Publicize course offerings in non-traditional locations such as beauty shops, in the women's section of newspapers or bank mailers.
5. Increase the ratio of females to males on advisory committees. It will take counselors, teachers, administrators, students, publishers and community leaders working together to eradicate many of the stereotypes prevalent today in employment opportunities for women.

As more and more adults return to post-secondary vocational education, the time is imminent when admissions directors will have to review their admissions requirements. Not only are many of the existing requirements somewhat threatening to female applicants, they are also youth-oriented. Many adults, both male and female, become so disillusioned with all of the required forms that they decide not to continue with their education. Cless (as quoted in Moore, 1975) indicates that some admissions requirements are either irrelevant or difficult for adult students to fulfill. She has labeled some of these as "ageist roadblocks", e.g., requests for letters of recommendation from recent instructors, required passing of examinations that assume that the adult applicant has been regularly and recently exposed to study skills. Additionally, the difficulty of transferring credits from one institution to another remains a major deterrent.

Brandenburg (1974) argues that tests such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Graduate Record Examination may discriminate against older women because they assess skills that may not have been used for several years. Brandenburg suggests giving "life experience credit" for experiences outside of formal education settings or using the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) and the College Proficiency Examination Program (CREP) as possible solutions to the problem of evaluating older women for admissions purposes.

Ekstrom (1977) urges that credit be assessed in a standardized manner such as the CAEL method of portfolio building for homemaking and volunteer learning experiences. Ekstrom (1979) has developed a systems approach to giving credit for prior learning gained in hobby, volunteer or homemaking experiential settings.

Waters (1971) was interested in finding out how colleges and universities handled their adult (30 years or older) applicants. She sent a questionnaire to admissions directors of 58 four-year colleges and universities in five states -- California, Georgia, Illinois, Massachusetts and Michigan. Forty-five of the fifty-eight questionnaires (76%) were returned.

The following table summarizes responses to issues raised:

Responses to Selected Questions for Admissions
Procedures for Adults

N=44

	<u>YES</u>		<u>NO</u>		<u>Not Answered/ Not Applicable</u>	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
Do you have an upper age limit beyond which students cannot be admitted to your school as undergraduates?	1	2.3	43	97.7	0	--
Do you attempt to evaluate life experiences in deciding whether, or at what level, to admit undergraduates?	20	45.4	23	52.3	1	2.3
Does the age of the applicant have any bearing on the tests he/she is asked to take?	10	22.7	32	72.7	2	4.5
Is there a particular admissions officer who handles all adult applicants?	9	20.5	35	79.5	0	--

Further, she noted that some institutions were using CLEP to evaluate adult applicants and giving credit for course work outside of the formal classroom setting. Two institutions were using the "Quick Word Test", a vocabulary test designed to estimate an adult's mental ability. The College Qualification Test had been used by other schools. The test of Adult College Aptitude developed at Washington University had not been used at any of the responding institutions.

Brandenburg sums up her findings regarding admissions requirements for adult women as follows:

Meeting the needs of returning women regarding admissions does not imply lowering standards or accepting all mature students. It does, however, suggest more accurate and valid consideration for the person seeking admission.

In Kellman's (1974) study of 30 re-entry students at Colorado State University, 88% expressed a desire and a need for individual counseling as opposed to 70% for vocational counseling and 63% for academic advising. These data suggest that more women feel that they can handle the academic pressures, but that other problems require specialized attention.

Re-entry women have some profound problems which distinguish them from the typical student. They are torn between traditional and non-traditional roles; between their function as wife and mother and their new sense of self-worth. This conflict frequently produces feelings of guilt and turmoil.

According to several studies, the most common characteristic of the adult re-entry woman lack of self-confidence in her abilities. She finds herself in a general depression, accompanied by an identity crisis, and has low self-concept and expectations (Self, 1969; Elledge, 1978; Arsenault, 1979). The elimination of the low self-image held by women re-entering college or directly entering the labor market is crucial to their success.

Needs unique to adult women result from these conflicts and insecurities. One of the most important of these needs is personal and group counseling. Such counseling increases self-awareness and self-confidence, widens investigation of occupational choices and vocational preparation and develops a systematic approach to job search and career development. Targeted career counseling can offer needed assistance in definition of personal skills and aptitudes and to correlate them to the market place.

Adult women need easy access to diverse and extensive support systems. These include: child care, work-study, cooperative education, apprenticeship programs, back-to-school orientation, social contact with peers and flexible scheduling of classes or training programs. These support systems not only ease the problems of re-entry but they also make returning to school, and subsequently to the labor force, a much more attractive option.

Knefelkamp, Widick and Stroad (1978) have developed a modification of Perry's (1970) nine stage model for cognitive development that has important implications for equity counseling of adult males and females. Each represents a different and increasingly complex method of understanding knowledge and the learning process.

According to Farmer (1967), adult students have multi-dimensional abilities which are not apparent if only a single measurement tool is used. Kingsley Wientge of the University of Missouri at St. Louis (quoted in Farmer, 1967) states that new measures must be devised and standardized for adults in order to assess their academic abilities.

Worell (1980b) and Tittle (1978) are recommending that life experience be considered in the development of educational assessment programs.

Psychological maturity is the second area which institutions should consider in developing guidance modes for adult learners. As a person passes through the adult years there is a diversification of abilities, skills, attitudes, and interests (Farmer, 1967). Adult students may have a tendency to use what they know best rather than to explore new possibilities for action. Thus they tend to repeat behavioral patterns even though these may inhibit their ability to perceive effective alternatives (Nolan, Burton, and Moore; 1975)

The adult's social roles comprise the third area of which instructors and counselors must be cognizant in working with older students. Social role pressures increase as adults mature. Society places high expectations on adults as they move through different age-time zones. In addition to family responsibilities, for example, adults have obligations imposed on them by their jobs, their communities, and their other social institutions. (Heilbrun, 1976; Farmer, 1978).

Only recently have researchers attempted to analyse female access and utilization patterns in post-secondary vocational education. There appear to be differences related to physical size and type of institution as well as institutional commitment. Kellman and Stanley (1974) viewed the adult female as a minority group of increasing importance.

Eliason (1977) sampled over 1100 females on ten two-year college campuses and found that only 22.5% rated counseling services as "good". Although all ten institutions offered both occupational and personal counseling, 16.5% of them did not know that occupational counseling was offered and an additional 16.4% denied that it was available. Respondents had even less awareness of personal problem solving services. It was stated as not available by 25.2% and 33.8% didn't know that the college offered such services. By contrast, of 14 identifiable and common student support services, the Learning Resource Centers received the highest ratings from 55.3% of the respondents.

Skilled faculty advisement takes on increased importance in the equity conscious institution. Working with professionally trained counselors, faculty can provide supportive bridges between the worlds of home, education and work. Sensitive faculty and administrators can also provide role models for students (Harmon, 1979).

The demand for equal opportunity to achieve educational and career goals has been highlighted by the women's movement in efforts to diminish discriminative job barriers (Roby, 1976; Harkness and Stromberg, 1978).

Mezirow (1976) cites the following reasons as most frequently articulated by women returning to college: self-fulfillment, desire to enter the labor force, dissatisfaction with traditional housewife role, fulfillment of a longstanding desire to return to college, independence of children, financial needs and job advancement. All of these issues need review by post-secondary planners.

Fossedal (1979) observes that the counselor is the link between the women and the instructional program. Therefore basic skills, attitudes and practices need to be well understood by all who would seek to offer equity counseling. These include non-sexist attitudes, verbal skills, body language, and decision-making processes. This reaffirms the research of Braud (1967) who perceives the role of the counselor as that of a "go-between" -- by assisting the student to relate his/her educational venture to the past, present and future. The student personnel worker, according to Braud, must be alert to the need of the student and be able to assess the following questions in counseling the adult student:

- What does this student want and why?
 - Does this institution offer what he/she is seeking?
 - Do his/her ambitions seem realistic with respect to previous experience, domestic and vocational settings and his/her finances?
 - Does his/her recent work and past indicate constructive achievement and moderate progress; or possibly confusion, poor efficiency or self-defeating behavior?
 - Does he/she appear informed about what he/she is seeking?
 - Is he/she confident or diffident?
 - Does he/she have any major relevant problems or handicaps?
 - What administrative steps might be necessary?
- (Braud, 1967)

If vocational counselors are to provide effective services for all adult students, they must be able to answer all of these questions and develop equity related competencies as well.

Overcoming personal biases concerning the role of women in career occupations is an imperative. As the counselor becomes more knowledgeable it is to be hoped that he/she will dispel such myths as:

"Women do not want to work for a woman boss!"

"Women take more sick leave than men!"

"Older women are unattractive and inefficient!"

"Women suffer unmentionable, vague diseases in middle life"

(Berry, 1972)

Harway, et al (1976) identifies six areas which contribute to sex discrimination in career counseling:

1. Socialization, which plays an important role in shaping the education and career decisions of young people, reflecting the sex-role bias of the surrounding society.
2. The counselor training field reflects the biases and sex-role stereotypes of the larger society.
3. Training materials and training rationales which reinforce existing biases or produce attitudes and values that interfere with equitable counseling practices.
4. Tests (personality, interest) and other source materials used to assess clients and assist them with their educational, vocational and personal decisions, reflecting sex-role biases.

5. Negative outcomes of counseling, reflected in students' educational and career decisions which indicate acceptance of sex-role stereotypes.
6. Use of traditional approaches in counselor training and procedures that maintains stereotypes.

These authors define sex bias in occupational counseling as any condition which limits client options solely because of gender, including limiting expression of certain kinds of behavior because these have been traditionally appropriate for one sex. Sex bias in counseling in many cases is overt, e.g., the counselor suggests that a female not enroll in math because "females are not good in math". On the other hand, sex bias can be covert as when the counselor or faculty advisor apparently commending females for excelling in jobs that are clerical in nature while mentally reserving managerial roles to men.

A major barrier to males or females entering non-traditional occupational training is the likelihood that they will encounter sexual harassment by their fellow students/workers. Sexual harassment of females entering previously "male only" fields has continued to be a serious problem both for the women students and for their instructors. The federal government has created few incentives to encourage vocational administrators to develop human relations training programs that address both covert and overt physical and verbal abuse. However, researchers indicate that where two or more females enter a work site simultaneously and are given pre-assignment training in assertiveness as well as access to a support group, the problems are fewer. (Kane, 1976; Heilbrun, 1976) The incidence of serious abuse diminishes more

rapidly when males are simultaneously given training to deal openly with their own value conflicts, fears or prejudices regarding appropriate female roles and male-female relationships. Successful programs also address the attitudinal problems that males and females bring to the work place. (Allen, 1976) In non-traditional settings, Kane found that adult women who had a strong father-daughter relationship or who were encouraged by an older brother or teacher tended to be able to act more autonomously and to define ideas and decisions more assertively.

Adults who wish to enter higher paying non-traditional fields seek some sort of post-secondary occupational training to acquire the skills, credentials and attitudes needed to survive and succeed in such fields. (Worrell, 1980)

Entrance and survival in occupational training and, beyond that in pursuit of a career, results in some difficult decisions for the woman and her family. The resolution of this conflict is painfully distracting. The family senses that the woman cannot afford the time that she once took to maintain the stereotypical female role and, consequently, the family often places demands upon her which she cannot fulfill. (Cord, 1979)

Uncontrollable circumstances, such as competition and being a woman, can also be obstacles if the career is one for which there is an oversupply of people for available jobs. Some women fear having to compete both with women in traditional careers such as teaching and nursing and with men in non-traditional careers, notably law and

medicine. Self-image was perceived as an obstacle by some men and women who had chosen non-traditional careers. (Hawley, 1971; Gottfredson and Holland, 1975)

Many factors prevent women from training for better paying careers. A study by Thomas and Denbroeder (1979) concluded that a woman's own perceptions and pressures from the family were the two prime factors deterring women from pursuing male dominated occupations. They found that women who were seriously considering non-traditional occupations more accurately perceived the requirements and problems that exist in non-traditional settings than those who had not explored such options. Furthermore, the study showed that women who had little or no thought of entering a non-traditional field were easily deterred by family or peer pressures. Women who are interested in pioneering or non-traditional occupations tend to have had working mothers. Tamgri (1972), Almquist and Angrist (1971), and Kane (1977, 1978, 1980) found that over 90% of females enrolled in better paying predominately male occupations have had strong, positive relationships with male teachers, fathers or older brothers.

Moore (1975) found that fathers had greater influence than mothers on non-traditional career choices. Mothers who opposed their daughters' choices of non-traditional careers did so because they did not want their daughters to chose "anti-social careers" such as law; or an "unfeminine career" such as physical education; or a "too different career" such as electrical technology. Societal pressures weigh heavily when women encounter hostility from family and friends con-

cerning a non-traditional occupational choice. As Karelius-Schumacher states in Designing: A Counseling Program for the Mature Woman Student (1977):

It is true that when as pivotal a family member as mother changes, the rest of the family feels the results and responds with resistance to the change. Associated with the familial tensions are guilt feelings arising from "neglecting" one's family.

Though family and friends may be verbally supportive, their actions often reflect a lack of understanding for the woman's needs, her desire to increase her job marketability and/or her knowledge and expertise in a certain field. (Branderburg, 1974)

Farmer (1967) identified three areas which should be considered by vocational administrators who work with adult students: age, psychological maturity and social roles.

Harmon (1979) cited eight basic criteria for equity-based occupational counseling culminating in a commitment to develop effective ways to initiate recognition of real barriers in the home, the educational process and the work place without discouraging career exploration.

Kane (1977) found that females selecting "neutral" occupational education, i.e. ones in which the numbers of employed females had exceeded 15% in recent years, such as accounting, drafting and law

enforcement, had been encouraged by female teachers, parents and/or counselors.

Smith, as quoted in Stechert (1980) cites rapidly advancing inflation as an important factor in career choice. In two career families, the female must now bring home more than pin money to keep pace with the family's fixed expenses. The single head of household faces even more imperative economic related career choices.

Administrators, counselors and faculty advisors should be aware of these economic realities to prevent "cooling out" student career goals and thus the potential for economic self-sufficiency. (Wyman and McLaughlin, 1979)

Post-secondary training for nursing and allied health professions has expanded greatly during the last decade. By the mid 1980's, major changes in content and delivery styles are expected to increase equity access for males and minority women. Males enrolled in vocational nursing report some of the same sex biases as do females in the predominately male occupations. (Eliason, unpubl. 1977 files)

Clearly, there is a dramatic need for reassessment of the meaning of the upsurge in female vocational education needs. While the financial problems of the educational institution and those of the students cannot be overlooked or dismissed, it is also evident that there is a great deal of work that needs to be done within the post-secondary

vocational institution to prepare for the continuing requirements of females who are, of necessity, determined to acquire positive career skills.

A well-reasoned and well-rounded plan for developing an institutional program for dealing with these problems would include:

1. A community-based advisory committee

Be sure to include potential employers and local female advocacy groups such as Business and Professional Women, AAUW, Zonta, etc.

2. A workable timetable for operation

Tying this to the institutional budgetary process is most productive. Don't try to "build Rome in a day".

3. Funding for a minimum of 12 months

Anything less will be counter-productive. Strive to place on long-term planning agenda.

4. Staff/consultants selection and training

Critical to your success. There is much bias and predisposition to overcome.

5. Outreach recruitment

A carefully selected and creative Advisory Committee can give you tremendous help in this area.

6. Selection of counseling models

Beware of bias. Select a diversity of models to be sure that diverse clients may be served.

7. Financial aid options for clients

Look for local options. Major employers; on-the-job training allowances, union participation and service clubs have been responsive to community needs in this area.

8. A public relations campaign

Spread the word. If you have an institutional PR officer, add him/her to your Advisory Committee. If you don't, seek the best commercial one in town and put him/her on it.

9. Ongoing evaluation effort

Survey your clients before and after they enter your program. Find out what works and what doesn't. Don't be afraid to throw out what's not working or to add something new that does.

10. A research component

Data collection and analysis is an imperative to program survival. Sponsors will not long support an unsuccessful program and you must be able to show that yours works.

Futurists vary in their predictions of things to come and about the nature of life in the twenty-first century. One thing they are in agreement on is the complete and equal involvement of both sexes in occupational as well as social scenarios. The economic needs of the American family today are dictating this wave of female involvement but failure to recognize the permanence of it could be culturally and financially disastrous to our post-secondary vocational institutions. They are the natural hospices for these women and there is a way to serve them, with or without the federal funds of the recent past.

Washington, D.C.

January, 1981

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